General Beauregard. SECOND ABTICLE. Not long after the battle of Shiloh Ger saurogard was summarily removed by Mr Davis from the command of the Western De-partment. The author of this parrative is justified in subjecting to a careful and impartia poview the extraordinary eironmatances to which this affront was put upon a hard-working, self-sacrifleing, and meritorious com under. The facts are these: On June 14. 1862, Gen. Beaureward, who, notwithstanding ere illness and suffering, had maintained his lines at Corinth for seven weeks, and finally, in the face of forces outnumbering his own more than two to one, had safely withdrawn his army to a much stronger position at Tupelo, notified the War Department at Richmond of his intention to take a brief rest from the fatigue incident to the incessant labors of the dquarters from Bladon Springs, the place

campaign. There was no probability that his presence would be requisite for some time at Tupelo, and if it were he could easily reach to which he had been advised by physicians to repair. As a matter of fact his health was in three weeks sufficiently recruited to admit of his resuming active service, and it was not until two weeks after his recovery that the personal supervision of the department commander was needed at Tupelo Nevertheless, on June 20 Mr. Davis sent at order assigning the command of the Department of the West to Gen. Bragg, not to or through Gen. Beauregard, but directly to Gen Bragg the latter being thus constrained to convey the unwelcome tidings to his old commander. Three months after this act of official discourtesy and gross injustice had been committed, some sixty members of the Confederate Senate and House of Representatives called upon Mr. Davis to urge the reappointment of Gen. Beaursgard to the control of the Western army, in whose creation he had the largest share. It is noteworthy that on this occasion Mr. Davis had not a word of criticism to offer on the manage-ment of the battle of Shiloh or on the strategic propriety of the withdrawal from Corinth to Tupelo. The ground on which he defended the removal of Beauregard was that the latter had left Tupelo without permission on a surgeon's certificate of four months, and without stating whither he was going. But the truth is that not only when these assertions were made, but when the order appointing Gen. Bragg was issued, Mr. Davis had in hi possession telegrams from Gen. Beauregard stating explicitly where he was going and that he did not contemplate an absence from headquarters of more than ten days. The words four months did not occur at all in Gen. Beauregard's despatches on this subject, excapt where they were used to measure the period during which his physicians had been enjoining the necessity of a little rest, but during which he had been unable to comply with their advice. As to the absence being without per-mission, it is absurd to suppose that the commander of a department was not at liberty to transport himself anywhere within the limits of his command, as long, of course, as the pub-lic service could not suffer by his movements, and as long as he kept the Richmond Govern-ment acquainted with his whereabouts. With regard to the protended difficulty of communicuting with Gen. Beauregard at Mobile or Biadon Springs, it will suffice to say that when Mr. Davis saw fit to send him a copy of the order superseding him by Gen, Bragg-which was done three days after the original order forwarded-the disagreeable message reached him with unimpeachable directness and promptitude. The harshest view that could be taken of Gen. Beauregard's action in withdrawing from headquarters for a short rest would only make of it an irregularity, and Mr. Davis professed in his interview with the deputation from the Confederate Congress to have "overlooked the irregularities of Beauregard's conduct in leaving the army at Tupelo." disavowed its influence upon his own course, and declared that he had based the displace ment of that General by Bragg exclusively on the public interests. Remembering what Bragg did and what he failed to do, the reader is at a loss to divine what were those momentous public interests which caused Mr. Davis to rebuff an imposing array of Congressmen with the averment that he would not reassign Gen. Beauregard to the Army of the West, "if the whole world united in the petition."

At the time when the above recounted appeal on his behalf was made. Gen. Beauregard was on his way to Charleston in obedience to orders assigning him to duty in South Carolina and Georgia. From September, 1862, to April, 1864 he continued in command of the department thus allotted to him, and a large part of Col. Roman's second volume is given to a de scription of the defensive operations carried on by the Confederates in this quarter. In preparing this portion of his narrative the autnor encountered, he tells us, a serious obstacle in the loss of almost all Gen. Beauregard's official papers relating to the period now under review. These documents were left, it seems, at Macon in the spring of 1864, and after the surrender of Gen. J. E. Johnston's army in April, 1865. their owner telegraphed an order to forward them to Atlanta. But they never reached that place, having been seized in transits, with some of Gen. Beauregard's personal baggare by Gen. Wilson, commanding the Federal cavalry in Georgia. The papers were finally placed in the War Records Office at Washington, and Col. Roman has been able by paying for them to secure copies of such as were absolutely indispensable to the composition of this history.

It is certainly a curious fact that Mr. Davis. in his book on the "Rise and Fall of the Cor federate Government," should find space only for the most cursory allusion to Gen. Benure-gard's defence of Charlestion, including, as it did, the repulse of the formidable assault, it the summer of 1863, by combined land and navol forces under Gen. Gillmore and Admiral Dahlgren. About all that he can find to say is that the holding of Fort Sumter reflected lustre on the city of Charleston-"that fort, located in its harbor, having for four years defied the army and navy of the United States." It would cortainly have been relevant, as Col. Roman suggests, for Mr. Davis to mention, in connec tion with this subject, who commanded the de partment, and who planned and executed the seece. The truth obviously, is that to Gen. Beauregard belongs the credit of having ren dered Charleston impregnable until on the approach of Gen. Sherman's army, the city was voluntarily evacuated in order to permit its garrison to cooperate with the forces of Gen J. K. Johnston in North Carolina.

From the latter part of April, 1864, when Gen. Beauregard was called upon by the Confederate War Department to assist Gen. Lee, until Oct. 17 in the same year, when he resumed command of the military dion of the West, he was actively engaged in furthering the defence of Richmond. During the first two months of this period he had a partially independent command, and the admirable work he did with very meagre rusources in holding Petersburg for three day against the impact of Meade's army is concise. ly and accurately stated by Col. Roman. The author says, substantially, that "on June 15 a small body of 2,200 men prevented 22,000 from taking Petersburg. On the evening of June 1 10,000 men presented an impenetrable barrier to 65,000. The same 10,000 men on the subsequent day confronted 90,000 and were not defeated It was not till the 18th that two divisions of tien. Lee's army came up and supported Boau-regard in the bloody contest of that day." It was indisputably Beauregard and not Lee who at this juncture, saved Petersburg, and thus deferred for nearly another twelvementh the ovacuation of Richmond.

From October, 1864, until the close of the war

Gos. Becaregard had nominally the command of the Wostern Department, but Col. Roman proves by abundant and conclusive documentary evidence that he was continually buffled by the central authority at Richmond, and that he was in no wise responsible for the influre of Hood's operations in Tennessee, or

forces in time to bar Sherman's norther progress from Columbia. What the noming ommander thought of the countless omission committed on the part of the Confederates during Sherman's fatal march is thu summed up in a chapter of this parrative Gen. Beauregard bitterly reflected upon Gen therman's long and slow advance from Atlanta o Savannah, from Savannah to Goldsboro, an rom Goldsboro to Baleigh, a distance of 650 niles, which it had taken him 109 days (an average of six miles a day) to accomplish. He know that this had been effected without material opposition, because of want of fore hought on the part of the officers of the Wa Department, from whom no reenforcements could be obtained, and by reason of apathy no concentration could be made at any oint, notwithstanding his repeated and urgen appeals. What added keepness to his regrewas the recollection that had Gen. Hood crosses the Tennessee River at Guntersville when he should have done so, he would have bud ample time to destroy the scattered Federal forces in the supplies there collected, and move on the Ohio without encountering serious Or possibly he might after taking Nushville have crossed the Cumberland Mountains and gone to form a junction with Gen. Lee, so us to strike Gen, Grant before Gen, Sherman could come to his assistance. The success of either novement might have compelled Gen. Sherman to follow the Confederate forces into mid lie Tennessee, thus showing the correctness of Gen. Hood's original plan, which, though badly executed, was nevertheless well conceived."

A part of Col. Roman's pareative which will e read with special interest is the concluding chapter, in which are summed up what are of the course pursued by the Confederate Government in regard to several matters which had a decisive bearing on the issue of the war between the States. Obviously, the success of the secession movement depended on the promptness and efficiency of the steps taken to provide the means of defence. Gen. Beau-regard accordingly examines what was actually done by the Confederate Government with regard to the importation of arms and munitions of war from Europe, and the purchase of a navy, and, in connection with these topics, he reviews the financial operations and the attempts to establish diplomatic relations with foreign powers, and especially England and France.

It was patent," we are told, "to every man of intelligence in the Southern States that arms, ammunition, accoutrements, soldiers lothing, shoes, and blankets must be imported from Europe." During the three months between February and May, 1861, "there was not the slightest obstacle to the procurement of arms and munitions." Moreover, after war had been declared, the blockade of the Southern seaports was for six months only nominal, and continued to be very imperfect up to very near the close of the contest. To what extent were these precious opportunities turned to account by the Confederate authorities? On Dec. 30, 1861. Major Huse, the only agent for the purchase of army supplies that the Richmond Government is known to have had in Europe, tele-graphed, "Not able to send anything." In iew of such a performance, it is not surprising that in 1862 accepted regiments should for months have vainly waited for arms at Richmond, and that the chief anxiety of Gen. A. S. Johnston was to find arms for his enlisted men. It appears that the first Confederate Secretary of War, Gen. L. P. Walker, resigned after long and fruitlessly urging the importation of arms by the hundred thousand. Almost the whole of the utterly inadequate supply of arms acquired by the Confederates came through the private enterprise of merchants shipping at their own risk, or from capture on the fields of battle. With this astonishing remissness on the part of the Richmond Execuive is contrasted the energetic action of the Northern States. "A reference to the bills of entry in the Custom Houses of London and Liverpool shows that from May 1, 1861, to Dec. 31, 1862, no less than 341,000 rifles, 41,500 muskets 26 500 flint guns about 50,000,000 percussion caps, and 2,250 swords were exported to the North. And from one-third to one-half as much more was shipped as hardware." This, oo, although the facilities for the home manufacture of arms and ammunition were incalcuably greater in the Northern than in the Southern States.

The Confederate Government displayed similar incompetence in the matter of obtaining and organizing a navy. At the very outset of the war an appropriation of ten million dellars in bonds, invested in cotton, would have given t a sufficient number of first-class seagoing steamers to prevent, or long postpone, a blockade. Such a proposition, we learn, was actually o it be the British East In It was, indeed, "very early proposed and urged by men of prominence lineluding Vice-President Stephens] that cotton should be purchased with bonds of the Confederate States," and it is here aftirmed that if 2,000,000 bales of the crop of 1860, or any considerable fraction of that quantity, had been got out before the Southern ports were closed, enough vessels could have been bought in Europe to form a navy little, if at all, inferior to that of the United States. From the damage inflicted on Federal commerce by the few ships which were tardily commissioned may be measured the work that might have been accomplished had the Richmond authorities betimes availed themselves of their resources and transformed reasonable proportion of their surplus cotton

into a strong naval force. As regards its fiscal policy the Confederate Administration relied mainly on the issue of Preasury notes and call certificates. Even by Decamber 1863 the currency put forthe mount. ed to over \$600,000,000, or certainly more than three times and probably more than four times the sum required by the business of the country. We imagine that few competent financiers. looking back on the situation, will fail to concur in Gen. Beauregard's averment that the true fiscal resource of the Confederacy lay from the beginning in the sale for cotton of 8 per cent. bonds, payable in ten, twenty, and forty years, There is no doubt that during the first two o three years of the war, at all events, the people of the South would have exchanged their cotton and all their available means table that a market could have been found in Europe for the cotton thus purchased, deliverable at the buyer's risk. In proof of this as section it will be sufficient to cite two facts. In the summer of 1863 Mr. Bunch, the British Consul at Charleston, made this official state-ment concerning the officiency of the blockade: "Authoritative accounts and commercial letters submitted to me by my Government prove that any vessel in Europe destined for a South-era port could be insured, with her cargo, at a premium of 7, 10, or 15 per cent." And as late a - March, 1863, when a loan of \$15,000,000 was at last asked for in Kurepe on Confederate bonds secured by cotten, deliverable at four specified Southern ports, supposed to be block

the bonds commanded five per cent. premium in the Loudon market." A strong point is made by Gon. Beauregard in his arraignment of the diplomacy of the Confederate Administration. There was unquestionably something puerile in the seren conviction that cotton was king, and that sub stantial aid could be obtained from England without tempting concessions. "It was persistently sought to keep the Confederate State commercially independent of all the nations o Europe and to confer no advantages in trade. The fact seems to have been wholly lost sight of by the Administration that England had large interests in the cotton culture of her East Indian empire, that the ruin of the Con-federate States and the depression of rival cot-ton production would stimulate and pro-mote British independence of America, and that unless compensatory and overbalancing interests in trade were tendered, England might seek commercial freedon by non-inter eighteen menths of the war the question of

nded. "the applications in London and in Paris to take the loan exceeded \$75,000,000, and

African clavory presented no obstacle to the formation of close relations between Great Britain and the second States. Gen. Beaureard proceeds to state what propositions Messrs. Mason and Slidell ought, in his judgment, to have been empowered to make.
"Statement of the South expected that the
Commissioners would be sent as plenipstentiaries instructed to propose, as conditions of our recognition and alliance, to England, France, and other astions, that the Confeder nte States, for twenty years, would lay no higher duties on their produc-tions imported than, say, 20 per cent, ad referent; that for the same period no tennage duties would be laid on their shinling entering or leaving our ports, except what bould be sufficient to keep in repair our hartween ports of the Confederate States during to police regulations: that upon the produc tions and tonnage of all nations refusing to recognize our independence there show be imposed a discriminating duty of, say, ten per cent additional control of the control cent, additional; and that, if necessary-but not otherwise—the Confederate Government should make a league, offensive and defensive, with special guarantees—for instance, a guar-

antee to Great Britain of British America." We agree with Gen. Beauregard in thinking that had such an offer as he has outlined been made before Mr. Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation-up to which time the Washington Government had loudly disclaimed any intention of abolishing slavery—the Palmer-ston-Russell Ministry would not have refused it, and that had they done, so they would have been forced by British sentiment to give way to a Conservative Cabinet pledged to recognize and assist the Southern States. As to the effect of such advances upon Prance, we need only recall the fact that without any inducements of the kind the French Emperor, in October, 1862, formally proposed to Great Britain joint mediation in behalf of the Southern States.

In the closing pages of this narrative it is asserted, as a matter of notoriety, that "before Sepember, 1862, public opinion concerning the management of Confederate affairs had undergone a decided change, and that grave doubts respecting the competence of the Executive to guide the destiples of the South were entertained by many who had the opportunity of knowing what was done and what was omitted." It is one of the objects of Col. Roman's book to prove that these doubts were well founded, and he intrinsic cogency of his deliberate indictment gains great force from the sanction betowed on his conclusions by one of the most gallant and devoted soldiers of the South, with vhose personal achievements the names of Manassas Shiloh Charleston and Petersburg the Roman law was concerned, decisive inquiry, are insoparably associated

Shall Our Case Law he Codified !

The codification of our common law may se thought to have been sanctioned in principle by the New York State Constitution of 1846 which provided for the creation of a Commission charged with the duty of preparing a draft code and submitting it to the approval of the Legislature. In fulfilment of this provision the draft of a code was drawn up about nineteen years ago, and this draft, after encountering many rebuffs and much criticism, and undergoing, we believe, some alterations and improvements, is now likely to be laid before the present Legislature and the present Governor. Should it be adopted? Is the principle of codification, estensibly accepted by the State Constitution, sound? or waiving that fundamental question, do competent men consider the proposed embodiment of that principle fit to be clothed with the authority of law? Both inquiries are answered in the negative by Mr. J. C. Carter in a paper propared at the request of the Bar Association of the city of New York.

It is contended by the advocates of the proposed code that the expediency of some form of codification, having been affirmed by the State Constitution, is res adjudicata, and that, accordingly, nine-tenths of Mr. Carter's paper is irrelevant to the single question presented to the Legislature, whether, namely, the particular experiment of which Mr. David Dudley Field is the principal author can be pronounced successful. But the purpose of the Constitution, so far as this may gathered from the language of instrument and from the declarations made in the Convention that framed it, do not warrant us in thus narrowing the scope of criticism. The intention being to ascertain whether such a codification of the law could be effected as would confer a public benefit, it is plain that the investigation would be materially simplified and promoted by arguments which, upon the broad inquiry whether from the nature of the case any attempt to apply the principle of codification to the English common law would not be fraught with public injury. A discussion which might result in demonstrating the inexpediency of any code at all, and thus relieve the Legislaof the law, is palpably and preciminently pertinent to the sim which the authors of the clause in the State Constitution must be presumed to have contemplated.

So much for the relevancy of the fundamental whose examination much the larger part of Mr. Carter's monograph is devoted. As to the candor. thoroughness, and acuteness with which the examination is conducted there an be, we imagine, but one opinion. It would indeed have been discreditable to the New York bar if a project so momentous as the adoption of a civil code had not drawn forth at least one eatise on the abstract propriety of subjecting the common law to codification which should e worthy to rank with the most luminous and useful productions of modern juriscon-sults. It will be universally acknowledged that the duty of exhaustive study and delib erate judgment imposed upon the legal presalou by the proposal to codify case law in been unrecognized or slighted, has at last been dequately and honorably discharged. Whether the reader is or is not disposed to concur with Mr. Carter in denying the wisdom of any atempt at applying the codifying principle to English and American case law-whether the possible attainment of greater certainty with regard to what the law is in cases hitherto djudged would outweigh the danger of a mis carriage of justice in cases unforeseen is postion upon which individual minds will no loubt continue to differ be will gladly own his loop indebtedness to the penetration, the broudth of research, and the unwavering fairross with which the subject is discussed, the precision with which the terms of the problem flered for solution are defined, the vigilance with which supposed precedents are scrutinsed, the care taken to discriminate between legitimate, permissible, and questionable ap-plications of one and the same principle.

Mr. Carter concedes that statute law is an appropriate province of codification, because in the subject matter of statutes it is of paramount importance that the rules shall be cor tain. It is also, he admits, "conceivable that a really good system of procedure might be devised and enacted into written law." alhough the attempt made in the State of New York to give the regulations for proceedings in the courts of justice is notoriously a failure. But his contention is that codification is inapplicable to that depart-ment of jurisprudence which he prefers to lesignate as unwritten law, but which is perhaps more commonly described as "case" or "Judge-made" law. Why? Because in the subjects failing under this branch of the law (which is concerned with the conduct of men in their ordinary pursuits and interrelations) it is of greater importance that the should be just, than that it should be rigorously certain and unmistakably known oforehand. But why may not the rules be both certain and just, as, on the whole, in statute law they seem to be? Because the pro-portion of unforescen emergencies and uncal-

culated conditions is immensurably greater in that category of human affairs which is gov-erned by private as distinguished from public law. So grave are the difficulties and dangers arising from this source that even such earnest advocates of the principle of codification as Mr. John Austin and Mr. Sheldon Amos acknowledge that the problem of dealing with the unseen has not been solved by any civil code as yet adopted or proposed. Mr. Carter goes further and undertakes to demonstrate that

the proteem is insoluble. On the other hand, it may be said that no exty protends a code would be exhaustive and final, but that actual experiments made in the Roman empire of Justinian, in Prussia, in france, and in Louisiana, have proved that codification is at least a great improve ment on the scattered, unsystematic case law which it has there superseded. Now, it is one of the conspicuous merits of Mr. Car-ter's paper that he takes firmly by the often allowed to pass without verification or have been committed by a champion of the proposed New York code in contourned a sun-Codex of Justinian, which was merely a sunto public law, with the Pundects, which were a much, however, as the Pandects, being sanetioned by the Emperor, in whom was vested supreme legislative authority, were in the highest degree authoritative, they possessed the precise element whereby a code differs from a digest, in our modern uses of the words, and therefore constituted virtually, though not nominally, a code of private law.
As to the abstract merit of the Pandecta regarded as an experiment in codification, that is a subject which -very sensibly, in our judgment-Mr. Carter has refrained from discussing at any longth, seeing that he was writing for American lawyers, not one in a hundred of whom could pass a Harvard freshman's examination even in the more familiar of the two classical innguages, knowledge of which is in-dispensable to a perusal of that Corpus Juris whose name is so glibly taken in valu. The really pertinent question with reference to the Pandects is not whether the completion immediately required profuse amendments -for that, in view of the huge amount of law digested, and the extent and complexity of the society to which it had to adjust itself, ought to have excited in Gibbon no surprise-but whether, on the whole, practitioners and litigants were better

recondite research.

credit which to the mind of the average legislator from the rural districts might be east upon the principle of codification from its having been invoked by such notable representatives of despotism as Justinian, Frederick the Great, and Napoleon Bonaparte. A code, of course, must stand or fail on its intrinsic merits, and, if it prove an admirable thing, so much the better for the despot who had the good sense to enact it. good sense to enact it. As a mat-of fact, moreover, the First Consul, in promoting the adaptation of French codes, merely carried out the intention of the Convention, a body of reformers compared with whom the authors of the American revolution were oligarchs. The true ground of exception to the Prussian and French precedents for codification is by no means over-looked by Mr. Carter, though the facts would have justified him in dwelling with more emphasis on the peculiar nature of the local and historical conditions. Notwithstanding the divergence of the principles which have prevailed in courts of law on the one hand and of equity on the other. England may now be said to possess a homogeneous system of jurisprudence. Nothing of the sort existed in the widely scattered dominions to which Frederick the Great succeeded. There was a different body of substantive law and a distinct mode of procedure in the isolated duchy of East Prussia in the Mark of Brandenburg in Pomerania, in Prussian Saxony, and in the Rhine provinces, and of course when Silesia and parts of Poland were annex-ed, further elements of juristic complexity were added. The effect of substituting a uniform code for all or most of these discordant judicial systems was to knit the alien constituents of the Prussian State into a nation and patriots cannot refuse to welcome a passing over for the moment imperfections | result which it required the strong arm of an in a given draft, should fix the mind autocrat to accomplish. The same thing may was the aim of Jacobin revolutionists to centralize and unify, as well as purify and liberate. One kind of law was administered by the Parliament of Paris, another by the Parliament of Toulouse, another by the Parliament of Aix. another by the Parliament of Dijon; Normandy ture from the onerous and delicate task of had its customary law, so had Brittany, graduating the merits of this or that abstract so had French Flanders. Obviously French republicans, who were quite as anxious as Napoleon himself to develop national coherence. felt themselves irresistibly impelled to displace by a common code all those betarogeneous segregative schemes of jurisprudence. A like observation detracts much of its apparent force from the Lauisiana precedent. In that State, as Mr. Carter does not fail to show, "there was a political necessity for an extension of the

law, arising from the circumstance that Spanish, French, and American law, in many cases sometical and American law, in many cases, competed with each other for supremacy."

Evidently there were powerful incentives to codification in the Prussian dominions of Frederick the Great, in revolutionized but still un regenerated France, in freshly coded and unassimilated Louisiana, that are absent in the case of England or of the State of New York. Mr. Carter also finds it easy to point out very grave shortcomings in the Prussian French. given form, and which for so many years had and Louisiana codes, and he makes effective use of Mr. Austin's admission that not any of those experiments in the way of codification would be profarable to the present condition of juri-produce in England. But Mr. Carter has been at no pains to ascerhe has adverted, a great majority of the Judges do not consider their codes as an immense advance on the preceding state of things. Has any critic of the results of codification in those countries ever seriously urged a return to the superseded system? Has any community which has once had a chance to try a code abandoned it?

province of legislation over the field of private

Mr. Carter is perhaps justified in affirming that the people of the State of New York would ose more than they would gain if their present case law, with all its incoherence and uncertainty, were supplanted by any of the great historical examples of codification. It does not follow, of course, because we begin on a higher level, that we must forego the hope of continued melioration, but it does follow that if we are to mentoration, but it does follow that if we are to seek improvement by means of codification we must have an ideal code. Now, the draft of which Mr. Field is the chief author, whatever may be its merits in some directions, is very far from being an ideal code. In the paper before us Mr. Carter draws attention to a large number of material errore in a single article purporting to declare the law of "general average." Other lawyers have found equally regrettable marks of weakness in other parts of the draft. Such being the result of desultory, unconcerted scrutiny, it is evident that the proposed civil codo should be submitted to prolonged and carolial review by a Cammission of jurists, each of whom should be selected for indisputable competence in some specific province of the law. Only a draft which had been rigorously revised and definitely sanctioned by such a Commission ought to be even entertained by the Legislature. Nor, however close an approach might be made to temporary perfection, should the seemingly irravocable step of codifying case law be taken, until arrangements can be made for mosting the unseen far more satisfactory than casual legislative among the page of the among the unseen far more satisfactory than casual legislative among the conditions of the page of the unseen far more satisfactory than casual legislative among the conditions of the page of the casual page of the among the unseen far more satisfactory than casual legislative among the casual page of the among the unseen far more satisfactory than casual legislative among the page of th seek improvement by means of codification we

THE GOSSIP OF PARIS.

amble Presents-New Th

PARIS, Dec. 21.-Mile, Marsy, Mile, Litvinoff, and Jean Richepin have occupied a con siderable share of the attention of the frivolou of late. Mile. Marsy is a black-eyed blonds o nincteen summers, who has made a magnifi-cent début at the Comédie Française in Molière's "Misanthrope." The critics compare her to Mars and Arnould-Pleasy. Everybody is going to see her, and what with her beauty and her immense talent, she seems likely to assume at the Comédie Française the supreme place tha has been vacant since the flight and de of Sarah Bernhardt. Mile. Litvinoff is also s blonds beauty, a Pole, who has made a success ful debut at the Italian Opera, and who is preparing to astonish Paris by her beauty and her luxury. And Jean Richepin? Ah! that is a longer story. M. Richepin is a poet and novelist of very original talent, who has the body of an athlete and the head and color of a gypsy; a stalwart, dusky man, with thick, black ourly hair and board, teeth of darsling whiteness, and the eyes of a tiget. M. Richepin, was formerly a brilliant student of the Ecole Normale, the supreme French college from which Taine and About and Taradeol and many other celebrities have come. One day prompted by his wild muse, he threw over the Ecole Normale and became a Parisan Bohemian without a cent. For fine or six years he lived on his with teaching, writing in the papers, tramping with strolling players, working even as a dock hand at for daux. Finally he got back to Paris, and in 1875 published a remarkable volume of verse called the Boagar's Song, violent, original, realist, so realist that, like flaudelines. Found at M. Mai' and Flaubert's. Madame Bovary, it called upon its author the anger of Dame Jinthus, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the door of his room in the Latin Chart, and on the action of two povoles. Latinity and Madame André." The piece was spring at the Ambut, Moanwhile Richepin has with the publication of two povoles. And was a spring at the Ambut, Moanwhile Richepin has written days do not especial of the Indian mutiny. This play was produced at the Port Saint-Martin Thentre some ten days ago, with Sarah Bernhardt in the rôle of the Indian mutiny. This play was produced at the Port Saint-Martin The piece was suppendiely put upon the stage, the costumes were magnificent, the bailed fair, and Sarah Bernhardt his diff paring to astonish Paris by her beauty and he luxury. And Jean Richepin? Ah! that is longer story. M. Richepin is a poet and nove off with Justinian's authoritative digest than they had been without it. Touching this practical and, so far as the expediency of codifying satisfactory evidence is not forthcoming in Mr. Carter's pamphlet, nor, indeed, would it be attainable without a great deal of difficult and We do not for an instant suppose that Mr. Carter personally lays much stress on the dis-Martin.
The Latin Quarter has been in a state of ebul-

the costumes and scenery of the Porte Saint-Martin.

The Latin Quarter has been in a state of ebulition during the past week, owing to an attack made on the students in Le Cri du Peuple, the Socialist journal recently started by Jules Vallès. A writer in this journal charged the students in general of the present generation with imbeelity, cynicism, and general rottenness. In their veins flows not the sap of youth, said the article; they have no restraint, no emotion, but all the brutality of boys abandoned to the bestial passions of adolescence; rotten physically, decomposed morally, they are but the legitimate fraits of the middle or upper classes, aiready gangrened by luxury and idleness. The students irritated by these charges, formed processions, held indignation meetings, demanded retraction, and finally delegated two of their number to challeing two of the editors of Le Cri do Peuple to single combat. The journal of Vallès replies in menacing terms that the present dispute is only an incident in the struggle of classes that began in 1848, and was resumed in 1871, and of which the ground is not the lists, but the street. The Cri de Peuple intimates that its writers are ready to meet their student adversaries at the barricade. The secret of the attack on the students simply is that Le Cri da Temple has had no success; Vallès desired to attract attention; he chose the subject of the students as he would have chosen any other subject; he obtained what he wanted, and he is satisfied. This same Jules Vallès has just published a follo volume entitled "The Street at London" (I vol. Charpentier). Blustrated with twenty-three etchings and many drawings by A. Sancon. It is a handsome volume, but it will not give the English much pleasure to read, Vallès describes London and the Londoners from the point of view of the discontented foreigner who dines alone and poorly at a cheap collec house in the Strand. A violent temperament like that of this revolutionary charlatan is not likely to be improved by nine years exile is not likely to be improved by nine years exile, nine years of had coffee and cold mutton. The street at London! Al! It is not the street of France! cries Valles: 'that street full of chattering and loy, where people are meeting every instant and stopping on every occasion. In France the people in the street follow the women and chaff the man; there is noise, laughter, rays, and flashes, the snarkling of lovy, an oder of plensure, souvenirs of powder. The street all the people in the street follow the women and chaff the man; there is noise, laughter, rays, and flashes, the snarkling of lovy, an oder of plensure, souvenirs of powder. The street all the people with the street and the street of the street of plensure, souvenirs of powder. The street all the street is not a land of the street of the stree

MONSIGNOR DE CESARE'S MURDER A Crime which Recalls the Marder of Lord William Russell.

ROME, Jan. 20 .- The reign of gayety has been darkened by a fearful crime. Monsignor de Cesare of the renowned sanctuary of Monte Vergine, near Naples, has been assassinated The Monsignor spent three or four mouths a year in Rome. He lived in his own apartments in the Via della Purificazione. He was an ad-vocate at the Congregation of Rites, and was interested in the canonization of the Biessec Cristina di Savoia, mother of Francesca Bor bone di Naples. He had charge of the Bor bonic archives in Rome. A man of much learning and vast experience, he was liked by both the Guelphs and Ghibellines. In 1860 he had a narrow escape from the brigand Bonavita, who killed two monks and severely wounded the Monsignor. The brigand made the attack because the Mponsignor had not interceded with the authorities for his pardon. When not at Monte Virgino, the Monsignor lived in his palace in Naples. He was about 72 years old and very deaf. His only companion at Monte Vergine and in Rome was Ferdinand Vaio, a Neapolitan servant, about 52 years old. He trusted him like a brother. This servant preceded him to Rome, and prepared the rooms for his reception. These rooms were on the first floor of the house No. 80 Via della Purificazione. In these apartments the Monsignor was found murdered on the morning of the 17th. The body was stretched on the floo in his bedroom. The legs were crossed, the left arm was bent on the chest, and the right arm was extended with clenched fist. The prolate was in his night dress. His head and face were covered with wounds. The left cheek was laid open and an eye was out. The walls were spattered with blood. His dressing case had been rifled, and its contents were scattered around the room. Haif-burned bed clothes were heaped near the body. A broken earthen warming pan told the story of the struggle for life. The police authorities found empty bottles and what was left of a supper in an adjoining room. In the pipe of a closet near by detectives discovered a large and a small knile, a piece of soap, a pair of bloody socks marked F. V.," and an empty pocketbook. On searching the room of a servant girlemployed by the landlord, they found the prelate's ring, two silver watches, four sugar loaves, and some parcels of coffee. The girls name is Agnes Butteri. The sugar and coffee belonged to the Monsignor. His servant had been courting the girl. The detectives arrested him immediately. The girls said that he had given her the ring, and that he had placed 400 tranes in the hands of her landlord for safe keeping, saying that he had saveil them from his wages. When arrested, Fernando Valo said: My master picked up a woman in the street and kept her in his apartment for some days. She said that she had been secarated from her husband. Not long afterward the husband called at our house and raised a row. He asked for his wife and demanded money. He said that they were pilgrims who had come to Rome to visit the Pantheon, and do honor to the remains of Victor Emanuel. My master wanted to settle things without any trouble, and he offered to let them remain in his house until the services in honor of the dead king were ended. He sont me out to buy food for them. This accounts for the empray beds.

The police authorities took no stock in this story. The servants breath smelled of the Marsala wine even while he was telling it. It was too evident that he was the only partaker of the supper. The neighbors saw neither husband nor wife and her his band of while his had appeared prelate was in his night dress. His head and face were covered with wounds. The left cheek was laid open and an eye was out. The walls

A NIHILIST LEADER'S REIREAT. The Home of Professor Pierre Lavroll is

From the Pall Mall Gazett At the summit of the Rue St. Jacques At the summit of the Rue St. Jacques, some miles away from the centre of gavety and fashion, and further even than the extreme limits of the Quartier Latin, lives the man of all others whom the Russian Government is most anxious to capture-Pierre Lavroff. Where the pavement is narrow, the streets always muddy, stands a house of more imposing aspect than the surrounding modest dwellings.

sale of the symbol the flusion downmont is most auxious to capture—Pierre Lavroff, ways muds, stands a house of more imposing scheet than the surrounding moder developes a state on the his shock. We must pose under a smaller structure that stands well away from a time mode of the struct, and assend two processes and the structure of the stands well away from a time mode of the struct, and assend two processes and the structure of the structure

A DAY IN TANGIERS.

Mrs. John Stratton's Visit to Two Moorts!

TANGIERS, Morocco, Jan. 15.-High above me I behold the buildings and walls of Tangiers. The blue Mediterranean dashes for gaves against a ruined mole and a temperary pler for the accommodation of travellers. Everything is different from European scenes.
Wild flowers grow in profusion on the roofs
and old walls. The bright blossoms of the cactus glow in the sunlight. The prickly pear attains the size and height of trees, and in many places forms arches beneath which ride Moors nd others mounted on mules and donkers. The natives cat the fruit, cutting each pear from its stem with twine. The leaves are food

for camela. Just below the hotel and outside the gate of Just below the hotel and outside the gate of the city is the soko or market place. On Sundays and Thursdays it is filled with a moticy crowd, who bring game, ment, eggs, fowls, and other provisions from the surrounding country. It is here that Gibraltar obtains its supplies.

Here you see the genulme Bedouin Arab. Wild and dirty as he is, he is clean when compared with the horrid looking men from the liffl const, descendants of the old pirates. They are wild and untamed, and flercey than wild animals. They do not even cover their beads. Their heads are closely shaved after loaving a look by which they fervently believe Mohammed will pull them up to heaven. The Jews are very numerous. They are known by their peculiar dresses. They erings to the dust and put up with every insult so as to remain in Tangiers.

The noise and din in the market place is infernal. At least 5,000 tongues are at work, you can hardly force your way through the crowd. Once on the outskirts you are lost in great herds of cattle and sirings of loaded donkeys from Barbary. These little creatures carry wonderful loads. They look small by the side of the camels. These animals, relieved of their leads are lying down in a circle with their fore legs tied together. Near them are numbers of gentskin tents, flitby in the extreme, and only high enough to sit under. The confusion is terrible. Some of the men are banging on drums, and others are playing the Moorish drom.

On passing through two gates we came to a the city is the soke or market place. On Sun-

ing on drums, and others are playing the klattah, which is infinitely worse than the Moorish drum.

On passing through two gates we came to a fountain. It was surrounded by a mob of water carriers. Tatared rags fluttered over their naked legs. They fought flercely for procedence in filling their water akins. Women whose faces were covered with the exception of an eye crouched on the ground near by, soiling bread. The magnificent Moor, in flowing white robe and spotiess turban, strutted magestically by, not deigning to cast his haughty glance at us. The streets swarmed with children in various costumes. The small shops were packed with men sitting cross-legged. Above, below, around, and beneath there was dirt of every description. Fortunately for us, the viter amelis had been tempered by recent rains. In summer the stench is said to be almost unbearable.

Above, below, around, and beneath there was dirt of every description. Fortunately for us, the vitor smells had been tempored by recent rains. In summer the stench is said to be almost unbearable.

This morning we were awakened early by a great noise. We heard cries, shouls, the beating of drums the firing of guns, and the steady tramp of animals, biped and quadruped. These were the thousands who had filled the soke returning to their homes in Fez. Morocce, and the great desert of Sahara. There is, however, a dense resident population.

A few years are an English lady married a Moor holding a high position in Tanglars. He promised that she should be his only wife, but since then he has espoused four other women. She is allowed to walk out, but not unless she is guarded. If she left him, she could take nothing with her. If he sent her away, she would be entitled to an income or to £2,000 in cash. The poor thing is a virtual prisoner. We have received an invitation to visit her, and shall accept it. Yesterday we were guests in two Moorish harems. The inmates gave us a very kind reception. The gloomy appearance of the outer wails contrasted strongly with the inside of the house. The hais were tiled. Marble pillars, bright colors, and rugs gave the rooms a bright appearance. Mattresses were laid on the carpets in apartments facing the courty and. They were the bedrooms of the wives. There wore no windows. Each wife leaves her slippers at the entrance of her bedroom. We saw no chairs, and only an occasional cushion. The wives prefer to recline or to sit on the floor. One or two sat on sheep skins.

The second harem belonged to a rich Moor. We saw there several clocks and mirrors, evidently a recent importation from Paris, but they looked out of piace. The Moor had only one wife, and she was just 13 years old. She had been married two years. She sat on the floor barefooted with three other women, who were in attendance. The life of Moorish wives must, however, be very wearisome. They are shut up in apartments with gr

RELIGIOUS WARFARE IN SWITZERLAND.

Protestant Services to Old Catholic Churches -The Last of the Liberal Catholics